Two Categories of ¹³C/¹²C Ratios for Higher Plants¹

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ABSTRACT

 13 C/ 12 C ratios have been determined for plant tissue from 104 species representing 60 families. Higher plants fall into two categories, those with low $\delta_{\text{PDB}_{\text{I}}}$ 12 C values (-24 to -34%) and those with high δ 12 C values (-6 to -19%). Algae have δ 12 C values of -12 to -23%. Photosynthetic fractionation leading to such values is discussed.

Carbon isotope fractionation is associated with photosynthesis. This fractionation results in lowering the ¹²C/¹²C ratio by about 20 per mille for land plants and 10 per mille for marine plants relative to atmospheric CO₂. A model has been proposed by Park and Epstein (12) to delineate the processes associated with this fractionation. To understand more fully the carbon isotope record and its implications for plant physiology, a more extensive investigation of the ¹²C/¹²C ratio in plants was undertaken. One hundred and four species representing 60 families have been investigated and the ¹²C/¹²C ratio for these samples shows a much wider variation than previously reported. These results bear on more recent ideas regarding the biochemical mechanisms or pathways of carbon fixation as well as showing the relevance of ¹³C/¹²C studies to biological processes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material (in most instances a green leaf) was air-dried at room temperature, combusted at 800 C in an excess of oxygen, and isotope ratios of the CO₂ evolved were measured on a Nier-type mass spectrometer modified according to Mc-Kinney *et al.* (10). Only the organic tissues of calcareous algae were used for the 13 C/ 12 C measurements. The CaCO₃ was removed by reaction with dilute HCl. Results are reported in terms of δ^{13} C relative to a carbonate standard.

$$\delta^{18}$$
 C\% = $\left[\frac{R \text{ sample}}{R \text{ standard}} - 1\right] \times 1000$

where R = mass 45/mass 44 of sample or standard CO₃. The standard is carbonate from the fossil skeleton of *Belemnitella americana* from the Peedee formation of South Carolina (PDB₁).

Thus a value of -10% means that $^{13}C/C^{12}$ ratio of the

sample is less than that of the standard by 10 per mille or 1%. The precision of measurement is $\pm 0.1\%$ of the ratio. Sample replication, including all errors of sample preparation, was $\pm 0.5\%$. Details of the procedures are described elsewhere (12).

RESULTS

Table I lists our data in order of decreasing 13 C/ 12 C ratios. Data from Table I are recorded in Figure 1 to demonstrate that on the basis of carbon isotope abundance our samples fall into three broad classes. The first class is highest in 12 C content and is composed of aquatics, desert and salt marsh plants, and tropical grasses. Another class is low in 12 C content and comprises the bulk of the plant kingdom. There is no overlap in δ^{12} C values between these two groups of plants. The algae are put into a separate group and are generally intermediate between the two higher plant groups. They belong to a separate and primitive plant subkingdom and will be discussed apart from the others. In spite of the close phylogenetic relationship between our groups I and II, some fundamental process is different in the two groups.

The four plants with highest δ¹³C values are aquatic monocots, whereas most plants exhibiting δ^{13} C values of -5.6 to -18.6% are terrestrial plants including monocots and dicots. Welwitchia was the only gymnosperm with a high δ^{13} C value. Bender (2) has recently reported high δ^{13} C values for a number of the panicoid grasses and our results are in agreement with hers. On the average the δ¹²C values of dicots are slightly more negative than those of the monocots. Wickman (17) also reported aquatic monocots and dicots with relatively high 12C/ ¹²C ratios. Most higher plants, including all lower vascular plants and all gymnosperms except Welwitchia, have δ18C values of less than -23%. Festucoid grasses (17), including bamboo, are in this group as are the palms. Dicots with δ¹⁸C values close to -23% are plants from xeric and salt marsh habitats. Cultivated plants and mesophytes are somewhat more reduced in 13C. There appears to be no relationship between the δ¹³C and phylogeny. Our results for marine algae are in good agreement with published values (3, 13, 14). Freshwater algae (Spirogyra and Chlorococcum) did not differ in δ¹⁸C from marine algae.

Atmospheric carbon dioxide does not change isotopically with geography or topography (7). Urban air is the exception, due to fossil fuel combustion increasing the 12 C content. Plant tissues reflect differences in isotopic composition of the carbon fixed in photosynthesis. In only five cases was the same species collected from more than one geographic area. Table II indicates that a systematic difference did exist with plants from the Los Angeles area consistently 0.4 to 1.2% lighter than corresponding species from Utah or Texas. This small difference may be accounted for by the smaller δ^{13} C values of atmospheric CO₂ in southern California than for less polluted rural areas. The values listed in Table I are from California.

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Table I. Plant δ13C Values

Family	Species	812 C‰
	I. High ¹³ C/ ¹² C Plants	
	Gymnospermae	
Welwitschiaceae	Welwitchia mirabilis Hook.	-14.4
	Monocotyledoneae	,
Potamogetonaceae	Cymodocea manatorum Aschers.	-5.6
Hydrocharitaceae	Thallasia testudinum Konig and Sims	-9.3
Potamogetonaceae	Zostera marina L.	-10.0
	Diplanthera wrightii (Aschers.) Aschers.	-10.9
Cyperaceae	Carex sp.	-11.5
Gramineae	Spartina alterniflora Loisel.	-13.1
	Cynodon dactylon (L.) Pers.	-13.4
	Zea mays L.	-14.0
	Saccharum sp.	-13.9
Potamogetonaceae	Phyllospadix torreyi Wats.	-14.0
Gramineae	Sorghum sp.	-14.4
	Distichlis spicata (L.) Greene	-14.7
	Monanthochloë littoralis Engelm.	-15.3
	Cymbopogon citratus Stapf	-14.8
	Stenotaphrum secundatum (Walt.) Kuntze	-15.7
Cyperaceae	Cyperus sp.	-15.9
Bromeliaceae	Tillandsia usneoides L.	-18.6
	Dicotyledoneae	
Amaranthaceae	Amaranthus edulis Speg.	-15.4
Chenopodiaceae	Kochia scoparia (L.) Schrad.	-14.0
	K. childsii Hort.	-14.8
	Atriplex vesicaria (Benth.) Heward	-15.1
	A. lentiformis ssp. brewerii Hall and Clements	-16.4
	A. nummularia Lindl.	-16.7
	A. halimus L.	-17.1
	A. polycarpa S. Wats.	-17.6
	A. semibaccata R. Br.	-18.3
	A. canescens ssp. typica (Pursh) Nutt.	-18.0
	A. canescens ssp. linearis (Pursh) Nutt.	-12.6
Saxifragaceae	Philadelphus microphyllus Hitch.	-17.1
J	II. Low ¹³ C/ ¹² C Plants	
	Bryophyta	•
Sphagnaceae	Sphagnum magellanicum Brid.	-26.0
	Psilotinae	•
Psilotaceae	Tsmesipteris fowerakeri Barb.	-29.0
	Sphenotinae	•
Equisetaceae	Equisetum arvense L.	-28.6
	Gymnospermae	
Taxodiaceae	Metasequoia glyptostroboides Hu and Cheng	-25.4
Ginkgoaceae	Ginkgo biloba L.	-25.0
Araucariaceae	Araucaria bidwillii Hook.	-25.9
Podocarpaceae	Podocarpus elata R. Br.	-26.0
Cycadaceae	Cycas revoluta Thunb.	-27.0
Cupressaceae	Cupressus sempervirens L.	-29.7
Gnetaceae	Gnetum africanum Rodin.	-30.2
Pinaceae	Pinus halepensis Mill.	-30.8
	Monocotyledoneae	
Gramineae	Triticum aestivum L.	-23.3
	Stipa columbiana Macoun	-24.2
Palmae	Trachycarpus khasianus H. Wendl.	-25.3
	Caryota mitis Lour.	-26.3
Gramineae	Agropyron spicatum (Pursh) Scribn. and Sm.	-27.1
	A. intermedium (Host) Beauv.	-28.8
Iridaceae	Iris spuria L.	-27.4
Typhaceae	Typha sp.	-27.0
Gramineae	Uniola paniculata L.	-27.
	Bromus tectorum L.	-28.0
	Poa secunda Presl.	-28.
	Bambusa vulgaris Schrad.	-29.
Pontederiaceae	Eichhornia sp.	-31.5

Table I-Continued

Family	Species	δ18 C%
	Dicotyledoneae	
Plumbaginaceae	Limonium commune S. F. Gray	-23.
Aizoaceae	Mesembryanthemum chilense Mol.	-23.
Verbenaceae	Avicennia nitida Jacq.	-23.
Compositae	Artemisia pycnocephala D.C.	-24.
Chenopodiaceae	Salicornia bigelovii Torr.	-25.
Rutaceae	Citrus sp.	-25.
Magnoliaceae	Magnolia grandifolia L.	-26.
Leguminosae	Pisum sativum L.	-26.
Cucurbitaceae	Cucurbita sp. (squash)	-26.
Frankeniaceae	Frankenia grandifolia Cham. and Schl.	-26.
Chenopodiaceae	Suaeda fruticosa (L.) Forsk.	-26.
Fagaceae	Quercus palustris Cockerell	-26.
Batidaceae	Batis maritima L.	-26.
Aceraceae	Acer rubrum L.	-26.
Oleaceae	Olea europaea L.	-26.
Compositae	Achillea tomentosa L.	-27.
-	Helianthus annuus L.	-27.
	Baccharis pilularis D.C.	-28.
Bombacaceae	Chorisia speciosa St. Hil.	-28.
Proteaceae	Grevillea lanigera (Meissn.) A. Cunn.	-28.
Salicaceae	Populus alba L.	-28.
Leguminosae	Arachis hypogaea L.	-28.
	Genista monosperma Lam.	-28.
Euphorbiaceae	Ricinis communis L.	-28.
Ericaceae	Arctostaphylos pumila Nutt.	-28.
Cruciferae	Raphanus sp.	-28.
Fagaceae	Quercus engelmannii Greene	-28.
Rhamnaceae	Ceanothus sp.	-29.
Casuarinaceae	Casuarina stricta Dry.	-29.
Chenopodiaceae	Beta vulgaris L.	-30.
Convolvulaceae	Dichodra sp.	-30.
Proteaceae	Hakea leucoptera R. Br.	-30.
Platanaceae	Platanus occidentalis L.	-30.
Compositae	Chrysothamnus nauseousus (Pall.) Britton	-30.
Solanaceae	Nicotiana tobaccum L.	-30.
Compositae	Achillea lanulosa Nutt.	-31.
Scrophulariaceae	Mimulus lewisii Pursh.	-32.
Myrtaceae	Eucalyptus globulus Labill.	-33.
Scrophulariaceae	Mimulus cardinalis Dougl.	-34.
Compositae	Achillea borealis Bong. III. Algae	−34 .
(Division)	1	1
Chlorophycophyta	Acetabularia sp.	-12.
Phaeophycophyta	Sargassum sp.	-16.
Chlorophycophyta	Entermorpha marginata J. Agardh	-16.
Phaeophycophyta	Macrocystis pyrifera (L.) C. A. Agardh	-17.
Rhodophycophyta	Corallina chilense Descaisne	-18.
	Gigartina cristata (Setchell) Setchell and Gardner	-20.
Cyanophycophyta	Blue-green sp. (mud)	-21.
Rhodophycophyta	Grateloupia setchellii Kylin	-22.
Chlorophycophyta	Chlorococcum sp. (fresh-water)	-21.
	Spirogyra sp. (fresh-water)	—21 .

DISCUSSION

Since 1965, when Kortshak (8) first described labeling of malate and aspartate as the first products of photosynthesis in sugarcane, much work has been done on differences between the Calvin cycle and the C₄-dicarboxylic acid pathway of carbon fixation (6). Thus some species may fix a great deal of carbon via P-enol pyruvate carboxylase rather than by ribulose-

1,5-diP carboxylase. They also have bundle sheath chloroplasts which may lack grana (9) and, if so, are deficient in photosystem II activity (18). Species exhibiting the C_4 -dicarboxylic acid pathway can fix CO_2 at very low ambient concentrations (11). This syndrome (16) also includes that group of plants with relatively large $\delta^{12}C$ values.

Many of our samples were selected to ascertain whether it is possible to predict, a priori, the δ^{12} C value of the species.

Table II. Geographical Influence on δ13C Values

	δ18C‰
Zea mays, L. Kaysville, Utah	-13.6
Chino, California	-14.0
Sorghum sp., Kaysville, Utah	-13.8
Chino, California	-14.4
Distichilis spicata, (L.) Green, Port Aransas, Texas	-14.0
Pt. Mugu, California	-14.7
Monanthochloë littoralis, Engelm. Port Aransas, Texas	-14.1
Pt. Mugu, California	-15.3
Salicornia bigelovii, Torr. Port Aransas, Texas	-24.7
Pt. Mugu, California	-25.2

translocation step determines how rapidly CO₂ in the cytoplasm is removed from the plant system to avoid a build-up of ¹²C in the cells. All three steps affect the final fractionation that is associated with the fixation of CO₂ by plants. The relative rates and efficiency of these various steps determine the isotopic composition of the final plant. In principle, this allows for plants to have the entire range of δ^{12} C values from -1 to -38% (12).

Adaptations leading to high ¹⁸C/¹²C ratios seem to be a response to life under difficult conditions (aquatic or xeric habit for instance). Hall and Clements (5) indicate that *Atriplex canescens* subspecies *typica* is wide-ranging throughout the Great Basin, whereas subspecies *linearis* is restricted to more arid regions of the Pacific Southwest. Subspecies *linearis* is over 5% richer in ¹⁸C than subspecies *typica*, implying

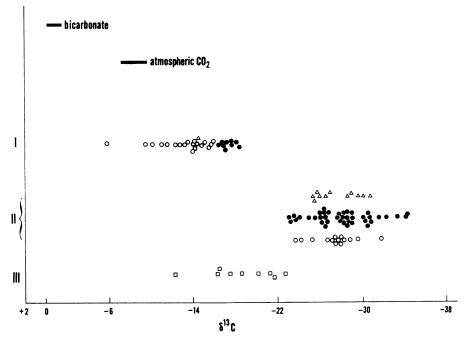


Fig. 1. δ¹³C values of plant groups. Monocotyledoneae (♠); Dicotyledoneae (♠); algae (□); Bryophyta, Gymnospermae. (△).

For example, those plants which are known to have agranal bundle sheath chloroplast morphology were found to have δ^{12} C values in group I. Conversely, it was possible to predict which plants had the above morphology from the δ^{12} C value. Similarly, isotope ratios could be used to predict which plants would exhibit high CO₂ compensation and which low CO₂ compensation.³

In the Park and Epstein model (12), uptake of CO₂ into the cytoplasm involves isotopic fractionation due to the greater frequency of ¹²CO₂ colliding with the cell membrane as compared with ¹³CO₂. After passing through the membrane, the dissolved CO₂ is partitioned into enzyme-catalyzed conversion to starch and into removal of some of the dissolved CO₂ through the vascular system resulting in excretion through the roots. Galimov (4) found CO₂ in the soil to be lighter than atmospheric CO₂ but heavier than organic carbon, thus confirming prediction from the model. The ribulose-1,5-diP carboxylase reaction had an experimentally determined isotope fractionation associated with it of about 17 per mille. The

rather different physiological adaptations for the two subspecies. This example also indicates that a great deal of δ^{18} C variation can occur within a species. Within the genus Atriplex there are species exhibiting δ^{13} C values as light as -29% (16). Growth under difficult environmental conditions might indicate an adaptation for more efficient photosynthetic carbon fixation which could be reflected in high 18C/12C ratios. Sculthorpe (15) reported that Thallasia and Typha produce the highest dry weight per unit area of all plants, with Eichhornia a close second. Thallasia has a high δ18C value, but the latter two do not. Thus, the difference between the two plant groups is not necessarily reflected in efficient dry matter production, although efficiency may be indicated under certain restricted environmental conditions. Casuarina through convergent evolution has some morphological similarity to Equisetum even though these genera are only distantly related. Close similarity in 13C/12C ratios for the two genera might argue for considerable similarity in physiology as well. Artemisia, Chrysothammus, Philadelphus, and Atriplex are all found in the Great Basin. Striking differences in δ13C values between these species might indicate a rather different evolutionary history resulting in different physiological adaptations to the xeric environment. Our modern desert flora have evolved dur-

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ing late Pliocene and Pleistocene times (1); thus, it seems possible that distinguishing ancient land and marine flora on the basis of ¹⁸C/¹⁹C ratios may still be a valid approach, unless similar adaptations evolved during other hot, dry periods of the past (e.g., Permian).

The δ¹³C of bicarbonate is 7 to 8‰ greater than that of CO₂ (Fig. 1). If algae or aquatic plants utilize bicarbonate, they would be expected to have a relatively larger ¹³C/¹²C ratio than plants incorporating atmospheric CO₂. Since Cymodocea has a δ¹⁸C value greater than atmospheric CO₂, it is possible that this plant utilized bicarbonate as the carbon source for photosynthesis. Some emergent plants, e.g., Eichhornia and Sphagnum, have relatively low ¹³C/¹²C ratios and probably fix atmospheric CO₂. The similarity in δ^{18} C values observed between fresh-water and marine algae indicates utilization of a similar carbon source in ocean and fresh water. The narrow range of values measured for the algae thus follows predictions made from the model. Most higher plants exhibiting relatively high δ¹²C values are terrestrial and utilize atmospheric CO₂. To demonstrate that this is indeed the case we grew corn seedlings for several weeks in acid-washed quartz sand watered only with distilled water and could observe no significant change in δ^{13} C from the -14% reported for field-grown corn.

Plants high in ¹⁸C differ from plants low in ¹⁸C in anatomy, physiology, biochemistry, and ecology as well as in isotopic ratios. Adaptations leading to high ¹⁸C/¹²C ratios seem to be a response to life under stress, such as aquatic or xeric habit. That such adaptations are a relatively recent development in the evolution of angiosperms can be shown by the large variation in δ^{18} C within families (*Chenopodiaceae*), within genera (*Atriplex*), and even within species (*Atriplex canescens*). Carbon isotopic ratios allow one to predict aspects of plant physiology. For instance, one can easily determine if a particular brand of sucrose was obtained from sugarcane (high ¹⁸C) or from sugarbeet (low ¹⁸C)—a distinction difficult, if not impossible, to make using classical chemical techniques.

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